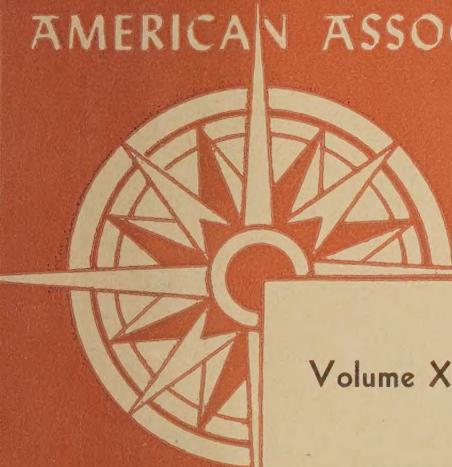


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Development of Social Work in Education

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THE function of education in a democracy is no longer solely to impart a certain quantity of knowledge to the minds of children. Influenced by the growing accumulation of knowledge in such fields as psychology, psychiatry, medicine, and sociology, with their concepts of human behavior, of conflicting forces and drives within the individual, and of the effect of environment and early experiences upon the human personality, educators today have a much broader view of the function of schools in a democracy. This modern view of education rests on the premise that a person's usefulness to society is determined not merely by how much knowledge or by how many skills he acquires, but rather by how well he is able to live with satisfaction to himself and to others in that society. It conceives of the function of education, therefore, as one of promoting growth of the *whole* individual, emotionally as well as intellectually.

One of the significant present-day outgrowths of this modern view of education is an interest in the development of *individual* children, with a concern for those who are not succeeding either in school achievements or in social relationships. The number of children falling into these groups is always considerable. Their problems are caused or aggravated by situations in the school, in the home, or in the community. These children derive no satisfaction from school life. They go into the world inadequately prepared in knowledge and skills and in attitudes toward their own worth. Some become delinquent, some unemployable, some neurotic, some defensive.

The schools have an early, natural contact with all children. They are no more of a cure-all for all problems of children than they are the cause of all those problems. However, they are in a position to detect behavior difficulties in the earliest stages. They observe a child in a group situation, in his adjustment to other children, to the school program, and in his progress toward achieving success. They have concrete evidence of the type of training and home care enjoyed by the child. What is especially important, schools can employ an objective approach in analyzing behavior problems. Supervising thousands of children daily, they can have an overall view of the problems of behavior deviations, and, because of their standing in the community, usually can offer an easy, natural approach to parents as well as children.

¹ Miss Laabs is president of the American Association of School Social Workers.

Many problems of child behavior can of course be studied and adjusted by the regular school personnel. The solution of other problems, however, is outside the province of the teaching staff and lies in the field of social work. In these situations, the school is or should be able to identify the child in need of assistance and bring such needed services to his aid. In recent years this function of education has been implemented by the introduction and expansion of social work in the schools. Members of the school staff but possessing a background of social case work, and hence employing a case work approach to behavior problems, the school social workers, or visiting teachers, as they are called in some communities, have a much greater significance today than they have had at any time in their three decades of existence.

ORIGINS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Boston, New York City, and Hartford started the trend of school social work by simultaneously introducing this type of service to their public school systems in 1906 and 1907. The professional preparation of these pioneer school social workers was not well defined and their salaries were paid by organizations outside of the public school system (a psychological clinic, a women's organization, a settlement house) who were interested in the social adjustment of public school children. In 1913, Rochester, N. Y., became the first city in which the board of education employed its own "visiting teacher" and equipped her with education in social work. Other cities followed Rochester's example, and by 1923, there were 137 school social workers in 52 communities.

Perhaps the greatest impetus to the development of social work in the schools, however, came from the program inaugurated by the Commonwealth Fund in 1921. Part of that program was committed to the National Committee on Visiting Teachers, affiliated with the Public Education Association, composed of leaders in the fields of education and social work. School systems of 30 localities in 23 states served as bases for school social work demonstration projects, 21 of which continued to finance their own departments after the eight year demonstration period. By 1930, the year in which the Commonwealth Fund withdrew from the field, there were 244 school social workers in 92 communities representing 31 states.

During the depression, when retrenchment everywhere was an order of the day, the development was noticeably retarded, and the programs in several cities either were discontinued or seri-

ously curtailed. By 1941 however, the year in which we entered the war, it was estimated that there were more than 150 centers carrying on this type of service to maladjusted children. They included such widely separated localities as Rochester, N. Y., Newark, N. J., Portland, Ore., New Orleans, La., Cincinnati, Ohio, Minneapolis, Minn., Greenwich, Conn., and San Diego, Calif.

Today, with the country in its fourth year of war, expansion of social work in the schools is growing at a rate unprecedented in its history. According to a preliminary summary of results of a canvass of approximately 1,000 cities of 10,000 population or more made by the United States Office of Education in 1944, of 743 replies received, 258 cities reported having organized full-time social work services in their schools, employing a total of approximately 1,000 school social workers. One hundred and one reported having some kind of school social work but not given by full-time professionally prepared workers. Forty cities, while reporting no services offered at the present time, indicated that they were expecting or had planned to provide such services during the following year. This survey affords concrete evidence of the rapidly mounting interest public school administrators, legislators, and educators in general have recently taken in social work in the schools.

In Michigan, to employ a specific illustration, the state legislature has allocated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1945, the sum of \$200,000 for the purpose of "aiding school districts and county boards of supervisors in the provision of programs designed for the prevention and treatment of behavior problems of children." As of October 1944, 85 school social workers have been appointed throughout the State. In Louisiana, under the terms of recent legislation, the school social work service is immediately to become state-wide in extent. That is, the law requires that each parish provide either the full-time or part-time service of at least one visiting teacher.

In addition to such state-wide programs, there are scores of individual communities throughout the country instituting and expanding programs of school social work on their own initiative. Scarcely a week passes during which some new development does not take place, and these developments are by no means confined to any one region of the country, although it is true that expansion of social work in schools is especially remarkable in the west, mid-west and mid-east. From New Canaan, Conn., and Syracuse, N. Y., in the east, to Phoenix, Ariz., in the west; from Houston, Tex., in the south, to Great Falls, Mont., in the north; from localities as small as Clovis, N. M., and Grand Forks, N. D., to cities as large as Philadelphia and New York, there is a greater expansion of social work in the schools than ever before.

TRAINED WORKERS NEEDED

In Syracuse, for example, a staff of nine school social workers will soon be provided. In Houston, which contemplates setting up a staff of six, the program has been held in abeyance because trained workers have not yet been found to fill positions. Vancouver, Wash., whose population has more than tripled since Pearl Harbor, contemplates establishment of a complete child guidance clinic, with a staff of six school social workers. South Carolina, Virginia, and Minnesota are only a few of the many states in which similar programs are being contemplated. In Detroit the school social worker staff was increased by the addition of 30 school social workers during 1944. Portland, New York City, and San Diego, are steadily expanding established programs. Other communities, such as Akron, have instituted surveys of their school systems to determine how many school social workers should be employed. School social workers are even serving in points as distant as the Territory of Hawaii, and great interest in the movement has been shown in Canada, notably Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver.

Much of this current expansion and introduction of new programs in the field of school social work may have been instigated primarily by an immediate need of stemming the wartime increase of juvenile delinquency and, in the case of war-boomed communities, of meeting the extra demands imposed upon existing school facilities and personnel by increased school populations. However, community leaders of today have a clearer recognition than ever before of just how important the school is the life of a child. They accept that concept of education which recognizes and accepts individual differences among children and believes it is the right of every child to have the best possible education fitted to his needs and to his capacities. They realize also how invaluable the school can be in "spotting" difficulties in the early stages and thus warding off personality deviations, disturbing behavior, school failures, and later unhappiness and maladjustment. As a result, even the most patent instances of programs set up as wartime expedients do afford evidence of long-range planning and of a realization on the part of community leaders that emergency measures in the field of school social work, if they are to be truly effective, should carry over into postwar years and reach not merely the more "difficult" children but every youngster who may be just beginning to show signs of maladjustment.

This realization and clearer appreciation of the nature, purpose, and functions of school social work is apparent from the ways in which communities of today, either those introducing new programs or those expanding old programs, are utilizing the services of the school social worker. Requests received by the American Association of

School Social Workers for information show a greater understanding among people seeking information as to the nature of school social work. A comparison of these requests for information with those of earlier periods, when the function of school social workers was not as clearly defined as at present, reveals certain trends. School social work, for example, is no longer looked upon as a "frill" in education, nor is the worker regarded as an outsider on the school staff. She has become an integral part of the educational system, a co-worker of the teacher in helping children use to the best advantage what the school offers them. Her special concern is for those children unable to utilize effectively the resources of the school or for those unable to fit into the school program with a fair degree of success.

HELPING THE TEACHING STAFF

One noteworthy trend evident in most communities having school social work is the growing use of school social workers in an educational capacity. By means of faculty meetings, case conferences, individual conferences, and seminars, the school social worker is helping the teacher to a better understanding of individual children and the community-wide responsibility for children. In the beginning, school social workers were truly "visiting teachers." They visited children's homes and brought such information to the classroom teacher and principal as they had managed to uncover. Today teachers and social workers in the schools have arrived at a working philosophy that regards each as differently trained professional persons who are working together on a common interest, the child in a school situation, each sharing the mutual goal of optimum development of the child through the medium of the school experience. As a result, teachers in an increasing proportion of schools employing social case workers look upon the latter as colleagues, with the school social worker complementing and maximizing (not duplicating) the contribution of the classroom.

This contribution of the school social worker implies a genuine cooperation with the classroom teacher and by no means lessens the responsibility of the teacher to handle different classroom situations alone whenever possible. The classroom teacher must necessarily remain the focal person in any educational system. The objective toward which the school social worker of today is striving in her professional association with school personnel is to assist in such a way that the teacher herself is better able to proceed from that point in helping the child. Fortunately, teachers in training today are getting a great deal more knowledge of mental hygiene than formerly. They are thus better equipped to regulate the classroom experience to meet more fully the individual needs of all children in a constructive way. However, it is in the area of helping individuals in trouble

where the school social worker, with her specialized training and skill, makes her greatest contribution. Even in this area, however, the school social worker functions in relation to whatever help the teacher can provide.

SERVES IN CONSULTATIVE CAPACITY

An important by-product of this increased acceptance and usefulness of the school social worker is the increasing demand for consultative service by public school administrators, teachers and parents. This demand has been in evidence for some time, but again has been accelerated by war economy and tension. Recognizing her specialized knowledge of causes of maladjustment and their proper treatment as well as her understanding of problems of community organization and relationships, public school administrators are increasingly using the counsel of the school social worker in defining, changing, or expanding school policies or procedures. Teachers, too, frequently bring their own problems to the school social worker of today, and parents come to the school social worker more freely than ever before to "talk things over," either concerning a child's difficulties or, say, their own difficulties with a child.

COMMUNITY PLANNING FOR SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

A trend in the field of social work and community planning, which has been reflected in the school social work movement, is the assessing by communities of children's problems and of facilities for meeting those problems. In this assessing of facilities, communities are now planning to use the services already available, and hence are considering the ways in which they can be broadened to meet the demand. On the basis of these findings are determined more intelligently what additional services are needed and under what administrative units they can be most effectively and economically established. This matter is particularly important at present because of the acute shortage of trained personnel in education, recreation, social work, and health services. These studies and estimates of services have led to consideration of how the services of all organized groups can be coordinated and made more fully available to the whole community. It is as a result of this assessing of community facilities that school social work services are being introduced or expanded in some localities, as in Houston, Syracuse, and Tacoma. The school social worker, because of her training and experience in both education and social work, is recognized by such communities as being in a strategic position to serve in a coordinating capacity.

GROUP WORK AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

But perhaps the most significant trend now manifesting itself in the field of school social work is the increasing attention school social workers are giving to group work and community rela-

tionships. This trend has been especially important as it concerns the relationship of school social workers to social services outside the school. Their training as social workers has given them a knowledge of social agency services and of how to make use of them and other community resources for meeting the needs of children that enables them to make a special contribution in this field. As has been pointed out earlier, the school social worker is a specialist who has been added to the school organization to meet specific needs. It is the adaptation and the use of these case work skills within the educational structure that make her training needs more varied and comprehensive than either those of a teacher in the classroom or of a case worker in a social agency.

Since she is a social worker and also a school person, the school social worker is in a strategic position to select and enlist the aid of the social agencies best equipped to meet the varying needs of the school child. In some situations the school social worker may act only as a liaison person between the school and social agency, referring a child to a case work or group work service for assistance in solving a basic problem reflected in the child's adjustment to school life. In other situations, she may work cooperatively with the classroom teacher, with the parent, with the child, while the social agency carries responsibility for another area of assistance to the family. In still other situations, the school social worker may find it necessary to carry full responsibility for case work treatment.

In order that these services may be used most effectively, close and continual contact between the social agency and the school social worker is essential. It is just as necessary for the social agency to be familiar with the resources of the school as for the school to be familiar with the resources of the social agencies. Only when the school and social agencies cooperate fully on a mutually planned treatment program are the efforts of both likely to be directed toward the child's whole situation, and confusion and duplication of effort avoided. The importance with which the social agencies regard the position of school social work may be inferred by a statement made in a recent survey for family agencies where it was defined as that of an essential "spotter." By means of her observation and knowledge of school children, the school social worker is able to uncover incipient or new difficulties and refer them to social agencies for help early enough so that these difficulties may be more easily removed.

TRAINING OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS

In the past, appointments of school social workers were largely made from the already existing teacher staffs, equipment for their new work consisting of their teaching experience, personal qualifications, and interest in working with indi-

vidual children and families. Today, while there is still some variance of opinion as to what is required in the training of a school social worker, public school administrators by and large believe that a school social worker should have a specialized training to equip her for carrying out her specific functions. The membership requirements of the American Association of School Social Workers are now well established for Senior, Junior and Associate members. They require of Senior and Junior members a certain amount of social work training. Many departments of education are in accord with these requirements. Teaching experience is of course desirable and extremely helpful. Orientation in the field of education, however, is absolutely essential. This implies a thorough understanding of the principles of school administration and organization and of the philosophy, functions, and resources of educational institutions. In addition to these qualifications, it is necessary that the school social worker understand acceptable techniques in the field of education.

The American Association of School Social Workers has tried to make these requirements realistic, reflecting not only the training of available workers but what is necessary for the adequate performance of an evolving and rapidly growing service. In some school systems, in which school social workers must be certified by state departments of education, requirements for certification are usually in the field of education. Certain states, however, such as New Jersey and Connecticut, have established special certificates for school social workers. A committee comprised of representatives of the American Association of School Social Workers is working closely on this matter of certification with state departments of education, schools of social work, and colleges of education.

FUNCTIONS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS VARY

The functions of the school social worker vary in accordance with many factors; for instance, with the nature of the community in which she works, that is, the size of the school population, the amount of money available, the amount and kind of other guidance services, such as psychological testing, health and medical service, provision for educational and vocational guidance, and the local attitude toward law enforcement in relation to attendance. In a small community, there is frequently a dearth of mental hygiene resources. It is in this type of community in which the responsibilities of the school social worker are the most burdensome, and useful, for she must be able to meet all guidance needs by herself; interviewing, diagnosing, investigating, conferring, treating, and following up.

These functions will vary also according to the responsibilities assigned to the school social worker by the educational system. They will

vary in accordance with the structural set-up of the school social work program: that is, whether the program works out of a central office or whether offices are scattered throughout the community. In Minneapolis, for example, school social workers have their offices in individual school buildings, with a supervisor in charge of their activities. In New York City, on the other hand, there are eight child guidance units which work out of their district offices. The structural set-up is important of course from the standpoint of assignment and intake of cases, supervisory relations, and the amount of clerical and stenographic help needed.

Probably the best way to illustrate how a typical administrative program is set up is to cite a specific example. In Rochester, N. Y., which has had school social work service for the past 29 years, and where more than half of the school population is in elementary schools, all special services are organized under a Coordinator of Child Services, into seven departments, each with its own director. They include the following:

The Child Study and Special Education Department, with 15 psychologists, and a part-time psychiatrist for individual services.

The Department of Educational and Vocational Guidance.

The Department of Co-ordination and Research.

The Health and Physical Education Department.

The Parent Education and Child Development Department.

The Attendance Department, with 14 attend-

ance officers, charged chiefly with matters of law enforcement. When attendance cases are social problems they are referred to the school social work department, which works closely with the attendance department.

The School Social Work Department, with 16 school social workers and a part-time psychiatrist.

It should be kept in mind that in any community the school social worker is a part of an educational system which has a responsibility for all children of school age. Accordingly, in some educational systems the school social worker is responsible for enforcing the compulsory school attendance laws. This fact naturally influences the relationship of the school social worker to her clients and to the selection of her case load. Whether or not the family or the child recognizes and accepts the need of assistance, the school has a responsibility of seeing to it that such assistance is provided, and the school social worker as a part of the educational system has a responsibility of giving whatever assistance is possible. As certain educators have stated, schools cannot set up "intake" policies governing the numbers of types of children with which they will work, since all children of school age must attend school. The school social worker must adjust her thinking and working methods to this fact. She must never forget that she is a social worker in a school setting, and as such, functions within the pattern of the entire educational system which in turn is directed toward meeting the welfare of all children in the community.

National Conference Plans

Howard Knight, Executive Secretary of the National Conference of Social Work, has announced a plan for local one-day conferences in lieu of the annual meeting of the NCSW which was cancelled in line with the request from the Office of Defense Transportation. The purpose of the plan is to bring to local communities selected material from the addresses which would have been presented at Milwaukee. These addresses will later be published in the 1945 Conference Proceedings.

It is proposed that a local committee of conference members and other leaders in a local community be organized for the purpose of promoting and carrying through the one-day meeting. The program for the meeting would consist of local presentation and discussion of from six to

eight conference papers of which the NCSW will supply mimeographed copies. To comply with the spirit and letter of the directive from ODT, the conference is urging that speakers, discussants and attendance be recruited from local sources. The conference is suggesting that Monday, May 28, be selected by the communities which want to participate. The dramatic effect of say 100 simultaneous meetings all over the country is obvious. In addition to locally arranged publicity in the press and radio, there is a possibility that a national radio hookup for a presidential address by Dr. Ellen Potter can be arranged.

The plans of the conference warrant the fullest cooperation on the part of conference members and associate groups.

The State Legislative Council—A Medium for Social Action

BY JAMES E. SIDEL

*Assistant Secretary, Legislative and Field Service,
National Child Labor Committee*

Mr. Sidel's interesting analysis of the State Legislative Council is based on years of experience in helping states to secure passage of social legislation. His paper will be followed in an early issue of *THE COMPASS* by an article describing the experience of the three Louisiana Chapters of the AASW in the State Legislative Council.

THIS article might very well be preceded by two others. The first would be an analysis of social action. It would be inclusive because even the definition is debatable. The second would analyze the methods now used by public welfare organizations and agencies to achieve legislative goals. Such an article would show the kaleidoscopic scene in the states with which we are trying to deal. In no two states do public welfare agencies or lay organizations in the field use the same form of social action and the same techniques. Considered a typically American phenomenon, it hardly merits a raised eyebrow. However, it also suggests an apathy in applying methods proven effective.

Everyone appreciates the need of effective legislative programs. Each welfare group has some kind of legislative program, be it ever so timid. Take state conferences of social work, for instance. A questionnaire answered by 25 of them in 1941¹ contained the question "What do you think ought to be the lines of development of your conference and its program during the next five years?" The largest number—nine conferences—said social legislation, and spoke of "a program of social action" for the state. Field representatives of specialized organizations tell us of increasing eagerness to tackle issues in which legislation is the key.

THE AASW GETS INTO ACTION

The Federal "Hatch Act" and similar laws or regulations in the states have poured cold water over a growing recognition of need. Gradually professional groups are exploring possible avenues of action. They talk of their several "areas of competence" as justification for their determination to solve a problem. An action program in a local AASW chapter, or in a council of social agencies, is no big news. Certain civic issues may overshadow a whole chapter program for months on end. There is still a healthy insist-

ence upon "facts" or "exploring both sides" but the issue does not get buried under the weight of authority and statistics until heads groggy with case histories lose all interest in the civic problem.

Action at last sees daylight. The group even gets beyond the "resolving" stage. Somebody puts a finger on basic causes, the naughty word "politics" is heard, and before the meeting breaks up a subcommittee may be given power to proceed on one or two specific suggestions, or at least to get an interview with someone who knows or is the "basic cause." A new element of action soon enters. Some one mentions a civic organization—the League of Women Voters, P.T.A. or a church—which has been exploring the same problem. Authorization to consult with other groups may be specifically granted or implied, and a whole new avenue of social action has been opened.

LEGISLATION—WITH AND WITHOUT CIVIC GROUP ACTION

The belligerent defensive attitudes against "lay groups messing in" social work problems and techniques, while understandable, had become unreasonable in their extension to every activity in the social field. This situation is fast clearing up—and through aggressive steps within the profession.

There are two inescapable facts about the civic-professional relationship. The first is that civic groups are and have been long pioneering in the promotion of social legislation. The second fact is that social workers, as such, or agencies, are frequently handicapped in dealing with legislators, and by themselves do not achieve the attention for legislation which the bill or their effort merits. Without laboring either point it seems clear that both legislative project and the professional agency gain by coordinate legislative effort with civic groups. On the local level this has been widely accepted. The states have been slower to act, perhaps because the state organizations and agencies themselves have been slow

¹ The Future of the State Conference of Social Work, by Arthur Dunham, published by the National Conference of Social Work, October, 1941.

to adopt an "action policy."² Consequently the extent to which state conferences or local councils of social agencies participated in legislative campaigns was, and is, limited to "informing members" "presenting all the facts," "suggesting members act as they see fit." These steps in participation are commendable. Frequently they lead to more vigorous action within a few years. Meanwhile they necessarily retard joint action with civic groups.

Assuming the desirability of coordinate action with lay civic groups the process of achieving it can be implemented through a functional organization generally known as a State Legislative Council.

We should at the outset be careful to differentiate State Legislative Councils as joint civic social action groups from the growing movement for governmental bill-drafting and fact-finding bureaus set up in many states. They often go under the same titles. The Legislative Council we are discussing is a group of state-wide civic organizations which promotes social legislation and improved administration of it.

Few people actively promoting legislation need to be convinced of the virtue of a council plan. After several buffettings by powerful tax-paying interests or other political control elements, any combination of forces which provides manpower, eliminates duplication, holds strength without the necessity of exercising it as pressure, would be most welcome. "Photo-finish" defeats, after exhausting personal struggles, are heart-breaking. It is no consolation that the legislators could not possibly have understood what it would have meant to their constituents. Legislators are not elected (as they could be) because they understand the tax structure, or the social structure. We must work with the material we find. Defeats in our lone-hand battles are almost a hundred times as frequent as victory. We must reduce this margin.

Three keys to success are: advance planning and timing, adaptation to practical politics, and coordinate effort. The Legislative Council can provide all three, and more.

THE COUNCIL PATTERN

The council has no absolute pattern. Historically, several states claim the first one. Actually, impetus to the council movement came from the Women's Joint Congressional Committee. This is a so-called "clearing house" for national legislation formed by the national civic organizations which have been pioneers in movements for advanced social legislation since the early women's suffrage days, and perhaps before. Many of the same organizations are also prominent in State

² To a questionnaire early in 1944, fourteen state conferences replied that they had action policies by virtue of constitutions or by-laws. Bulletin of State Conference Secretaries, "State Conferences and Social Action," March 20, 1944.

Legislative Councils together with certain state or regional groups not always active in national legislative work.³

The "clearing house" basis is common to a majority of the score or more State Legislative Councils. Most, however, have taken steps beyond that plan, looking toward *joint action*. There are councils which have had their member organizations bring to meetings well in advance of the legislative session tentative proposals for the consideration of all groups. Out of these proposals, frequently duplicates of those advanced by others, come concrete bills on which some unified action can be planned. Depending upon the council's constitutional basis for joint action, it is then possible to set up complete machinery for a campaign within or outside the council.

Utah boasts a type of council which is not common. It is a loose confederation of state and local groups and agencies banded together for mutual education and a show of strength in whatever projects a united effort on agreed items can be obtained.

California boasts two legislative councils, each of them of a different character. The earlier one was called, and is probably so designated, a "Legislative Round Table" formed of nine organizations which jointly clear and plan their programs. The second is a "Social Welfare Legislative Information and Action Bureau" whose main function seems to be distribution of regular bulletins giving state and national legislative information.

Some fifteen of the state legislative councils formed in 1938 a National Council on State Legislation, with offices in St. Louis, to act as a coordinating group and promotional agency to aid other states to form such councils.

The shortcomings of the council plan are many, but all councils represent a method superior to the "everybody for himself" plan still followed in at least half the states. If the groups do nothing but meet they show progress. Civic groups are going to put bills in the legislative hopper. They want professional aid and advice, and joint sponsorship and action. If they don't get it they may carry on their own programs. They may act upon the premise that they are the people to be served and they know what they want and it is pretty hard to challenge that without demon-

³ For example: American Association of Social Workers, American Association of Medical Social Workers, Conference of Social Welfare, Congress of Parents and Teachers, Councils of Jewish Women (locals fused for state-wide membership), Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Federation of Women's Clubs, League for the Preservation of Constitutional Rights, League of Women Voters, Society for Mental Health, Society of Christian Service of the Methodist Church, Tuberculosis and Public Health Association, Women's Christian Temperance Union, Young Women's Christian Association (locals fused for state-wide membership). All these are members of the Louisiana Council.

strating complete lunacy. So this is a plea for state social work organizations to change by-laws and constitutions, if necessary, so that they can work jointly as members of councils, or to form councils.

DANGER OF LONG LEGISLATIVE PROGRAMS

At the outset we should warn that the councils set up simply as "clearing houses" for member organizations to discuss and clarify their own legislative programs, achieve a relatively low percentage of successful enactments of legislation. This can be traced to the huge lists of sponsored bills which such simple "clearance" plans produce. They include major law revisions and very modest administrative corrections and frequently end with passage of some of the latter and few, if any, of the former.

Take an example in the field of welfare legislation. Seldom have all agencies and lay organizations managed to concentrate on a few major measures. Only rare legislatures have vision and understanding to study and pass 50 or more major social welfare bills. Sometimes the appropriations requested would bankrupt the state! The legislators ponder. Which should be adopted? Those for which there is greatest pressure, or against which the "controlling financial interests" will raise fewest objections? Or those for which there is the greatest need? In one way or another legislators looking for an easy way around controversial bills or appropriations will dodge the promoters of such bills as broaden the base of A.D.C. or reorganize the Department of Institutions, and try to redeem themselves by putting through a nice little harmless bill that repeals an annoying phrase in the adoption law. If we criticize a legislator for such tactics we are met with a sarcastic "Didn't we give you something? What do you want—the whole state?" That happens so often it becomes a standard practice. How can we avoid it?

There is not much doubt that boiling down a huge program requires marked devotion to social progress. The question that the organization with a goal may have to face is, "Is our project *urgent, vital* at this moment, *politically feasible, well planned* and promoted *beyond* all other welfare, labor or educational type projects now being advanced? Five bills, certainly never more than six or seven, is all that could meet these tests in a fair evaluation. But if continued for each session, and selection is made on a democratic vote basis, the next five sessions will see all of the really important measures enacted.

HOW A COUNCIL OPERATES

Let us look at the steps necessary to arrive at such a selective program of legislation. Louisiana represents a plan which avoids the pitfalls of some earlier councils. Here is the basis of their thinking.

1. *The Original Member Organizations Must Get in Tune.* As in every state, between ten and twenty state organizations advance or support every major project on social legislation. When combined they represent about three-fourths of the population. Each has adopted resolutions about legislation. To implement these resolutions they have appointed a Legislative Chairman, who may have a committee. Beyond that the picture clouds. The chairman may have experience in the job, more likely he, or she, does not. The chairman may start a year or two in advance of the legislative session to get bills prepared and cleared with agencies and other civic groups. More likely, the chairman starts all this less than thirty days before the legislature convenes! Perhaps the annual convention does not meet until after the legislature does, and the chairman has no final program approved. So a great deal of hammering upon basic essentials in each organization is needed before a council can function.

The chairman must want the job for its own sake, not as an "orchids and tea" sinecure.

The chairman must start at once to pull together those items which the group has wanted and get them approved for legislative effort at the first board meeting, and must add items from the next convention only if about one year intervenes for their promotion. Early clearance is necessary.

The chairman must be sure to have permission to coordinate efforts with other groups and if necessary to join a council with board approval. There must be a legislative budget.

2. *Calling, Organizing, Financing.* Some group or person must take the leadership in calling together all civic groups having social legislative programs. Political parties or clubs, and commercial interests are not part of the picture. Local groups, unless they can be fused into a unified state set-up are not, at the outset, a good organization base. The idea must be explained thoroughly and subcommittees must be set up to explore interest and financing, to draft constitutions and by-laws, and to go through the whole process of launching similar movements. Louisiana's Council President has prepared a statement⁴ justifying the Council's plan, and a report. These would be helpful descriptions of aims and methods for anyone forming a council.

The one question upon which some groups will hesitate is financing. There is no set pattern for financing, but an action program requires between \$1,000 and \$2,500 for each biennial session, depending upon how well volunteer help can be used and dovetailed with paid services. A paid secretary-representative during the legis-

⁴ "Summary Statement"; "Louisiana Legislative Council—Its Reason for Being," Dr. Paul Y. Young, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La.

lature and several months before, is a very helpful adjunct to a good campaign. Membership varies. Some states use a \$10 base, others \$25 per year, with graduated fees for groups above a fixed membership. When a group protests that it spends no money for legislation it is safe to assume that it gets very little out of its legislative program, or that it has many hidden expense items—telephone and telegraph, stationery and postage, some travel and conferences. Since the council achieves better results by pooling strength and expenses and effort, the saving can be clearly demonstrated. For every dollar expended greater results can be shown on a long run basis.

3. *Selecting a Program—early.* Assuming the achievement of an organization and availability of a period no less than eighteen months before the next session meets, the next step would be a round table conference to discover all pending items not enacted and likely to be introduced at the next legislature. By using the criteria previously mentioned the member groups can list all items and vote upon items which they consider worth inclusion in a legislative program. Those five, or other agreed number of items receiving the greatest support, become the program for the succeeding biennium.

4. *Polling—and Use of Replies.* Since polling of gubernatorial and legislative candidates is also a fixed part of council procedures, this is a pre-primary election task. For polling purposes all items submitted by member groups may be used. Returns (mail, followed by local personal calls on non-responsive candidates) must be published widely, since here as elsewhere the total strength of the combined civic groups can only be realized by local application of procedures. It may be desirable to defer final vote on program items until the returns from the poll have been analyzed. Louisiana, a state not given to close scrutiny of legislators' social viewpoints, was surprised to find 160 legislators replying to its first poll, and most favorably. Then they proceeded to hold the legislators to their words.

5. *Each Member Group Backs Only Specified Projects.* Under this system it should be noted that the greatest pitfall of joint action plans is avoided. Once an organization has voted on the items it considers most desirable and necessary (in line with its own mandates) it can add its name to those of other supporters of winning projects; but unless it does so it cannot be considered as endorsing such other items.

The method of operation of the council is by project committees, one for each item on its final program. Each committee is a separate unit. Publicity or publications of that project or bill are in the name of that Committee (given its own selected name). There are no council projects, unless all council members vote to endorse

some project and use it as such. Thus no group is embarrassed by finding itself endorsing an item it may even disapprove. Certain leeway is given to oppose or support items introduced by legislators on which the member groups may have had long-standing views.

6. *Office Service—Control Method.* The committees operate on independent plans, but they all utilize the central office set up by the council. Volunteer services, typographical and printing aids, daily checking of progress on each bill, including those of general interest which may not be specifically on council committee support programs, and weekly bulletins to all locals, are all part of the system. The daily check of progress on bills is best obtained by the use of an overall "Calendar Committee" of twelve, and preferably twenty-four, members resident in the capital, to cover all actions every day of the week in both houses. Reports on floor speeches, committee hearing comments, calendar progress, and miscellaneous information give the office and project committees their cue for future planning.

7. *Sub-Committees Carry Out Three Functions.* Without attempting to indicate in detail the timing of a campaign, and the step by step passage of a bill through the legislature⁵ we can indicate that the functional distribution of tasks falls naturally under three heads. Each of these could be handled by a subcommittee of a project committee. (1) *Education*—This involves specific tasks, begun immediately after close of a legislative session and continued in intensity until about three months before the next session meets. Most legislative campaigns involve education, but seldom go beyond it to the far more important tasks. (2) *Political*—This includes pre-session tasks like interviews with state and local political leaders, polling of the candidates, and analysis of the returns, coordinating these with the political complexion of the legislature to use them effectively. (3) *Steering*—This is a function which is complex and requires the best trained minds available. This subcommittee handles the interviewing with introducers of bills, governors, committee contacts, planning the hearings, and planning of floor campaign to the end of the session.

This cannot be an exhaustive statement of the details of council organization, much less the complex plan of a legislative campaign under council sponsorship. We can hope that AASW chapters will work toward achieving a council organization in their state, and in doing so will obtain competent advice for this undertaking on which there is so much at stake.

⁵ See "Techniques for Social Action" by Opal Gooden, National Y.W.C.A. reprint in condensed form by the National Council on State Legislation, and "The Legislative Process in Social Action" by the author.

Wartime Regulation of Voluntary Foreign Relief

BY JAMES BRUNOT

Executive Director, President's War Relief Control Board

DURING and after World War I many American relief agencies were created to help alleviate the condition of war-affected populations in Europe. By the middle of the 1930's a number of these agencies remained to care, also, for victims of the events in Europe and Asia which led up to the second world conflict.

With the outbreak of another war in Europe on September 1, 1939, many additional organizations sprang up to solicit funds for refugees and for civilians in devastated countries. The poignant needs of war sufferers met a ready response from American contributors. Rising incomes and rising indignation, as well as generous humanitarianism, aided the cause of war relief. Solicitation was relatively easy; so easy that the number of appeals multiplied until competition threatened to defeat the whole objective, and so easy that occasional fraudulent or subversive purposes were able to masquerade among the many sincere and honest efforts.

As the various nations in Europe and Asia were aligning themselves either with the allies or the Axis, the United States was formulating policies intended to avoid involvement in the conflict. Control of the private war relief operations began when Congress adopted the Joint Resolution known as the Neutrality Act of 1939. This prohibited the solicitation of funds for the benefit of belligerent nations, but made an exception to permit private relief activities if they were duly registered with the Department of State and if they were conducted in accordance with regulations which the Act authorized.

Since that time the national defense program and the exigencies of war have brought additional prohibitions and controls which vastly complicate relief operations. Among them are blockade restrictions, censorship of mails and cables, restrictions on foreign transfers of funds, limitations of passports and transportation, and quantitative control of purchases and exports of essential goods such as medicines, foods and clothing. But, as in the case of the Neutrality Act, exceptions have been made for relief agencies. Unhappily, the special consideration given to their activities carries with it not only some rigid limitations and restrictions, but also the difficult task of complying with procedures which were designed, in many instances, to meet the requirements of large-scale wartime enterprises rather than the relatively simple business of sending friendly aid and comfort to needy people.

Since July 1942 the focal point in the federal government for supervision and regulation of voluntary war relief agencies has been the President's War Relief Control Board.

Registration under the Neutrality Act

To carry out the requirements of the Neutrality Act of 1939 (54 Stat. 8, 11) the Department of State immediately informed all foreign relief agencies that they would be required to register if they wished to continue to operate for the benefit of people in nations which had been declared belligerents. Registrants were required to furnish statements giving details of their organizations in the United States, listing their agents or affiliates abroad and outlining the purposes and areas of their activities. They were required to furnish periodic reports of their receipts and expenditures or shipments. Their foreign transactions were supervised to assure compliance with the Neutrality Act requirement that American resources should not be turned over to agents or instrumentalities of belligerent governments.

By 1941 the Department of State had registered more than 600 such agencies. Their multiplicity and their increasingly costly competition for resources was apparent. The agencies concerned with local welfare programs and with voluntary services for our own expanding armed forces began to feel adverse effects of foreign relief appeals.

In March 1941 Secretary Hull requested the President to appoint a committee to study these problems and to recommend further action. The President named a committee of three including Joseph E. Davies as Chairman, Charles P. Taft and Francis Keppel, all serving without pay.

The committee started by studying the data already supplied to the Department of State by registered agencies. It supplemented this with additional reports submitted voluntarily both by those agencies and by others engaged in war relief activities both in the United States and in countries which were not belligerent under the terms of the Neutrality Act. Members of the committee conferred at length with various government agencies and non-governmental organizations concerned with relief and welfare.

Agencies competing to raise funds were expending an increasing proportion of their resources on promotional and administrative costs rather than relief. Many organizations were planning their programs and spending contrib-

uted funds without adequate knowledge of relief needs or similar activities of other agencies. For example, more than 80 unrelated groups were appealing separately for funds to help the beleaguered people of Great Britain. Similar situations existed in relief efforts for many other countries. There was an unnecessary duplication of work and the funds collected were sometimes poorly distributed. Frequently the agencies were as much disturbed as the committee when they learned of specific instances of misdirection of their resources.

While preparing its report to the President the committee undertook direct action to coordinate the activities which it was reviewing. Through conferences and persuasion, and with the hearty good-will and cooperation of a vast majority of the agencies, it started a process of consolidation and coordination in the interest of economy and efficiency of operation. But in the occasional instance where good-will was not strong enough to overcome the desire for separateness at any cost, the committee was powerless.

President's War Relief Control Board

On July 25, 1942, acting upon the report of the committee, the President, by Executive Order, established the President's War Relief Control Board to serve until six months after the close of the war. The Order transferred the functions and authority of the State Department over foreign war relief agencies to the Board, and extended the Board's jurisdiction to cover war relief activities in behalf of non-belligerent as well as belligerent nations.

War relief activities of a domestic character, such as relief and welfare services for the civilian population of the United States affected by enemy action, and relief and welfare activities for the armed forces and their dependents were included also. The Board's jurisdiction was not extended however to local charitable activities of a normal and usual character or to intra-state activities other than those immediately affecting the war effort. Activities of the American Red Cross, and those of established religious bodies also were exempt from the provisions of the Order.

The President appointed the three members of the Committee to serve as the Board. On the death of Mr. Keppel, Mr. Charles Warren, former Assistant Attorney General, was appointed to the Board.

The Board was given specific responsibility to control, in the interest of the furtherance of the war purpose, all solicitation and distribution of funds and contributions for the war relief or welfare purposes as defined in the President's Order. To accomplish this, the Board was empowered to license agencies or groups engaging in activities of this character, to regulate their

fund raising activities, to establish standards of operation, to require that accounts of the agencies be submitted for review, to eliminate or merge agencies in the interest of efficiency or economy, and to take whatever steps it deemed necessary to protect domestic welfare programs.

Because of the close relationship between the operation of foreign war relief agencies and the government's foreign policy it was decided that the Board should function as a constituent part of the State Department, upon which it relies for advice on all questions relating to the foreign policy of the government.

The Board was given full authority to require that all activities of any private war relief agency under its jurisdiction be coordinated with the policies and programs of other federal agencies and the American Red Cross. Since the United States is a signatory of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration agreement, this authority also extends to coordination of voluntary war relief programs with UNRRA plans and policies in countries receiving relief from UNRRA.

The Board's criteria for accepting applications for registration and for granting authority to undertake war relief activities are stated in its regulations as follows:

501.4 Application for Registration

- (a) No application for registration will be accepted until satisfactory evidence is presented to the Board that:
 - (1) the project is not against the public interest and there is need for the particular relief or welfare carried out or proposed
 - (2) the applicant has organized an active and responsible governing body which will serve without compensation and which will exercise a satisfactory administrative control, and the funds collected will be handled by a competent and trustworthy treasurer
 - (3) the purpose to be served is not adequately fulfilled or cannot be adequately fulfilled by existing programs and organizations
 - (4) there is no avoidable conflict of national appeals for public support with the recognized campaigns of the United States Treasury, American Red Cross, the National War Fund and the Community Chests and other essential local charities
 - (5) limitations upon transportation and communication facilities, economic or military controls, or other restrictions are not such as to make it impracticable to effect the proposed relief efficiently and economically
 - (6) the estimated costs properly chargeable to overhead are not unreasonable, and

- (7) the applicant under the name used in its application for registration is not engaged in political action or propaganda and does not combine nor intend to combine political action or propaganda with its relief activities or with its relief appeals.
- (b) No application for registration will be accepted if the means proposed to be used to solicit or collect contributions include:
 - (1) the employment of solicitors on commission or any other commission method of raising money
 - (2) the use of the "remit or return" method of raising money by the sale of merchandise or tickets
 - (3) the giving of entertainments for money-raising purposes if the estimated cost of such entertainments in relation to the gross proceeds is unreasonable, or
 - (4) any other wasteful or unethical methods.

A large part of the Board's work is directly related to the enforcement of these requirements in the case of agencies already registered as well as in the case of agencies applying for registration. For example, an early move by the Board was to question the sponsors of all registered agencies about the activities to which they had lent their support and prestige. The result was a flood of letters from prominent citizens, many of whom apologized for their neglect of the worthy causes they were sponsoring and promising either to resign or to play an active role in the policy direction of their organizations.

One of the major problems in foreign war relief is that of avoiding factionalism within and among agencies. The Board now insists that all members of the governing bodies of agencies seeking registration must be American citizens. While individuals taking an active part in relief efforts must of course be free to express themselves on either foreign or domestic political issues, the Board insists that American relief agencies must be conducted purely in the American interest and maintains constant vigilance to minimize factionalism over extraneous questions.

The requirement concerning the adequacy of existing programs and organizations [501.4 (a) (3)] is closely related to the Board's mandate to eliminate or merge agencies if necessary in the interest of efficiency or economy. Questions of organization have been foremost since the Board began to function.

The task of merging rival agencies has been carried forward successfully mainly by persuasion and appeals to common sense. Often it is difficult for hard-working, well-meaning people to recognize that they might be able to do a better job by combining their efforts with those of similar groups with whom they have felt a sense of competition. The Board has brought the repre-

sentatives of such organizations together, and as a result of patient efforts at conciliation, larger groups have been formed by merger or federation. Since 1941 the number of agencies has been reduced from some six hundred to just over one hundred. The British War Relief Society and United China Relief are outstanding examples of strong agencies built from many small groups.

One of the major organizational steps with which the Board has been concerned was the establishing of the National War Fund. Using the fund raising organizations of the community chests, supplemented by new War Fund organizations to assure complete national coverage, the single annual campaign of the National War Fund now supports the USO and also furnishes about 60 per cent of the funds expended for foreign war charities licensed by the Board. The major Jewish war relief programs are financed by a similar joint drive, the United Jewish Appeal, which currently supplies about one-third of the total for foreign war relief.

Perhaps the most tangible improvement in the picture of foreign war relief is that of efficiency of operation as measured in terms of the cost of promotional and administrative costs (not including service costs). The following figures are from the Board's quarterly tabulation of financial reports from all registered foreign relief agencies:

Year	Total Cash Receipts	Percentage used for Administration, Promotion, etc.
1941	\$28,542,000	13.1%
1942	30,506,000	12.7%
1943	49,419,000	7.9%
1944 (9 months)	57,323,000	5.9%

The increasing proportion of contributions used to benefit those for whom the contributions are made is due mainly to the successful agency efforts to operate with maximum economy. It is due in part to the cancellation of licenses of agencies which have not been able to meet the Board's requirements in that respect.

Some General Policies

The Board's whole relationship with agencies under its jurisdiction is guided by some general concepts about voluntary war relief which might be indicated as follows:

(1) To the extent consistent with public interest, American citizens should be free to express their interest in the welfare of peoples of other countries by offering voluntary relief and assistance to help meet their known needs.

(2) The agencies which are established to provide a channel for this voluntary expression of interest and friendship are important to the American public. In turn, the public, which supports their activities by contributions, must not be subjected to solicitation for unnecessary purposes nor

to appeals which fail to serve their avowed purpose because of excessive costs or because they duplicate efforts of governmental or other private agencies.

(3) The operations of American war relief agencies should be conducted in this country and abroad without political, racial or religious factionalism either among the contributors of the relief funds or the recipients of the relief.

(4) Avoiding factionalism does not necessarily mean wiping out existing organizations differentiated along national or sectarian lines. It does mean that these differences must not become the basis for discriminatory relief appeals to the American public nor for discriminatory relief activities abroad in the name of the people of America. To minimize these dangers close coordination is imperative between American agencies or groups interested in providing voluntary relief for any particular area or any particular people abroad. Overseas it is even more important that the activities of various American agencies be related into harmonious programs for each area in order that they may express fairly the humanitarian interests of American contributors.

(5) The relatively small funds collected for voluntary foreign war relief should not be used for services or supplies which are or can be financed with public funds including the resources of the foreign governments, those of United States agencies and those of international instrumentalities such as UNRRA and the Intergovernmental Committee for Refugees. Voluntary relief activities should *complement* the activities of governmental agencies, and add to the services provided from public resources.

(6) To the extent consistent with the prosecution of the war, private relief agencies should be given all possible information and service from governmental sources to assist them in developing workable plans to carry out the humanitarian objectives for which they are organized.

Much of the work of the War Relief Control Board and its staff consists of careful consideration of the programs of registered agencies in the light of such principles. Each quarter the proposed export programs of all agencies and the budgets of all agencies financed through the National War Fund are reviewed in detail at the Board's office. Representatives from the Department of State, Treasury Department, UNRRA, the Army and Navy, Combined Production and Resources Board, War Production Board, Foreign Economic Administration, American Red Cross, and other agencies, are consulted about proposals advanced by the private relief agencies. The Board asks their help in determining whether agency plans bear on appropriate complementary relationship with the Lend-Lease program, the military relief programs for liberated areas, and subsequent plans of UNRRA. Comments of the

governmental agencies dealing with supplies of scarce commodities help the Board and the relief agencies to redirect proposed operations if their plans call for unobtainable materials or shipping space which will not be available.

These detailed reviews of agency programs serve another important purpose in addition to assuring conformity with general policies determined by the Board. The work of voluntary foreign war relief agencies as a whole is only *one* of the several channels through which the people of the United States express their traditional interest and sympathy for peoples affected by war. The American public through the Federal government is also aiding war stricken peoples by generous participation in the financing of UNRRA, by the Lend-Lease program, through the emergency relief programs administered by the American military forces liberating occupied areas, through U. S. credits to foreign governments resuming responsibility for the basic needs of their freed lands, and by various other means.

The actual quantity of American money and supplies which reach war distressed areas through the work of all voluntary agencies is small in comparison with funds expended through these public programs. But the specialized private relief operations are extremely important pieces in the varied mosaic of American help to foreign peoples for often it is through these relatively small programs that the ordinary citizen of another country can see most clearly the evidence of America's interest in his well-being.

No discussion of the War Relief Control Board's activities or of private foreign relief activities would be complete without reference to the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service.

In the Spring of 1944 the several agencies carrying on foreign war relief activities and many other organizations promoting related educational, health and social programs in foreign countries, established the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service to serve as a medium of joint planning and exchange of information. Under the aegis of the Council a wide variety of committee activity is carried on. Geographical committees for France, the Balkans, and other major areas devote themselves to study and solution of problems arising in connection with American relief activities for such areas. Committees on shipping, procurement of supplies, etc., work on these matters affecting the programs of all agencies.

Through the combined efforts of the many private relief agencies, the National War Fund, the Council and the Board, representing the government's interest, a concerted effort is being made to see that American dollars for voluntary foreign relief will be used efficiently and effectively to provide aid where it is most needed.

Professional Responsibility Toward Research

BY RALPH CARR FLETCHER

*Associate Professor of Social Work,
Institute of Public and Social Administration, University of Michigan*

Mr. Fletcher mentions an informal meeting held recently in New York to which were invited several members of the AASW who are particularly interested in research in social work. It was agreed by the group that much more needed to be done to encourage research. We hope that publication of Mr. Fletcher's article will stimulate members and chapters to discuss further this vitally important part of a profession's development.

FOR sometime members of the Detroit Chapter of the AASW have engaged in informal discussions regarding the profession's responsibility toward research in the area of social work. These discussions have been prompted by specific problems that have arisen to plague the teachers and practitioners of social work. As a result the chapter, in October 1944, constituted a committee to formulate these discussions and to develop for the chapter a definite program for encouraging research among the members and to suggest procedure in handling the professional problems arising from individual research projects.

This committee has met and established what it believes to be a fundamental approach to the problem of local professional recognition to research. This report was presented first to the Detroit Chapter and later to a special meeting called in New York by Joseph P. Anderson, Executive Secretary of the national Association. Both the executive committee of the Detroit Chapter and the members of the special meeting in New York felt that the thinking developed should be made available to all the members of the profession.

It must be kept in mind that the program planned by the Research Committee of the Detroit Chapter was influenced by problems arising in the community. Also the report is based upon an initial study of the problem. However, it is believed that the specifically local problems in Detroit are but examples of the general problems of professional responsibility toward research which are common in all communities. The presentation is grouped around three major problems.

The first and most important problem considered by the Detroit Committee is the encouragement of individual research by students and members of the social work profession. There are two schools of social work in the Detroit area which together graduate about 50 professional students each year. All of these students are required to present a thesis representing individual research in the field of social work. In addition there are approximately one hundred

students in the two schools who have completed all of their professional training except their theses.

Each year a sizeable number of practicing social workers, usually the younger ones, express a desire to undertake independent investigations of problems which they come across in the course of their practice. Unfortunately in most cases these individual plans seldom proceed beyond the discussion phase.

STIMULATING INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH

The committee felt that there was a definite responsibility for the local chapter to encourage students to complete their theses and to encourage practitioners to develop their plans for independent study. This encouragement, if it is to be effective, must be more than a gesture of professional interest. Therefore it was recommended that the chapter undertake a number of specific projects. It was proposed that short reviews of completed theses be published and circulated among the chapter members and that a permanent research committee of the chapter review the theses and select the more outstanding ones for oral presentation to the chapter as a regular part of the chapter program. Also students should be encouraged to develop articles based upon their theses for submission to national publications if the content of the theses warrants. The Research Committee of the chapter should be available for consultation with such students and advise them as to the preparation of articles and assist them in placing the articles for publication.

The committee also recommended that a similar service be offered to practitioners interested in undertaking independent research and that the chapter review such completed studies in its regular publication. The Research Committee should provide consultation service in planning independent studies and in locating resources in executing the study, and advise in the preparation of manuscripts.

The committee further recommended that an annual census of research projects similar to the

one conducted by the American Sociological Society be conducted among members of the chapter and a bibliography of the projects in process and completed during the year be published by the chapter and made available to the members.

Finally, the committee recommended in this area of encouraging research that it serve as a clearing house for the suggested projects of study. Members of the chapter should be encouraged to present problems which they feel should be investigated perhaps by students planning theses or by individual practitioners wishing to make a contribution to the field of social work. Such suggestions should be made available to the membership of the chapter.

INDIVIDUAL ACCESS TO AGENCY MATERIAL

The second major problem considered by the committee is centered in the conflicts which have developed between the individual doing research and the agency's concern for itself and its clients. It may help to give some specific examples of this type of situation. A student obtains the approval of a thesis plan of study from the school of social work. This research involves the use of the records within a specific agency in which the student is doing his field work. A number of the cases to be studied are clients receiving service at the time of the study. The student obtains permission from the agency executive and the board of the agency to undertake the study. As the research progresses, a number of the practitioners in the agency feel that the nature of the study as well as the method of study seriously threatens the established relationship between client and worker. However, this situation is not discovered until the student, armed with the approval of the faculty and the agency executive, makes substantial progress towards completing his thesis.

Another common situation arises when a student in the course of his study clears a group of cases with the social service exchange and undertakes a follow-up with the agencies registered in search of material. In many cases the agency approached under these circumstances questions the professional status of the student and his right to have access to agency records for purpose of study.

Consequently, the committee recommended that the chapter attempt to formulate a procedure which, while safe-guarding the professional relationship between client and worker, would make it possible for students and professional workers to pursue studies not only on material available in their respective agencies but in other agencies in the community.

The committee recommended that the chapter urge the agencies to study their responsibilities toward research and, as in the case of one of the agencies in Detroit, to establish a committee within the agency composed of the practitioners to clear all proposed research done in the agency.

The committee also urged the chapter to take the leadership in developing in the Council of Social Agencies a policy toward research as it involves inter-agency problems.

DEVELOPMENT OF APPROPRIATE RESEARCH METHOD

The third problem considered by the committee is the responsibility of the profession in developing and approving the techniques of research especially applied to social work. In any new science study begins by appropriating and adapting research methods from older disciplines. As these methods of research are used, they are modified as instrumentalities to meet the peculiar exigencies of the problem studied. The preservation and dissemination of these new methods of research are a peculiar responsibility of the profession. For example, the American Public Health Association has developed during many years of trial and study a method of appraising and evaluating the health service of a community. The profession of social work has a similar responsibility of developing and officially approving a technique of evaluating the social service in a community.

The science of personnel administration in business has developed methods of accounting for units of individual performance. Likewise, there is a responsibility for the profession of social work to devise the means for unit accounting in social work.

In all professions there is the basic problem of measuring the success of performance. This is true in medicine, electrical engineering, dentistry, or pedagogy. In each case the lay public logically looks to the profession to establish criteria of measurement of successful performance. Consequently, the social work profession has a responsibility in defining terms and establishing units of measurement for the purpose of evaluating performance. Local chapters of the AASW because of their closeness to the actual practice are in an especially advantageous position to study the definition and units of measurement necessary for the study of social work. Therefore, the committee recommends that the chapter give special attention to research methods and techniques that are used in the study of social work problems.

The term "independent research" is misleading. It is seldom that an individual can pursue a program of individual study in research without making use of numerous facilities in the community. Often an individual is discouraged in carrying out a plan of study because of his ignorance of the resources available that can aid him in the collection, tabulation, and analysis of data. Therefore, the chapter has a responsibility to conduct a continuous inventory of equipment and facilities that will facilitate individual research. For ex-

(Continued on page 28)

REPORT ON ASSOCIATION FINANCES

1944 Income and Expenses

Budget Estimate for Year Ended December 31, 1944
Budget Items Only

Statement of Cash Receipts and
Disbursements for Year Ended
December 31, 1944

Balance of Cash, January 1, 1944.....	\$10,267.29	\$10,267.29
Refund of TWA deposit during January 1944.....	425.00	
Total		\$10,692.29

BUDGET RECEIPTS

Membership dues.....	\$58,650.00	\$58,635.79
Additional contributions.....	150.00	376.25
Publications	500.00	1,597.26
Miscellaneous	200.00	170.14
Wartime Committee on Personnel ¹		534.70
Interim Committee ²		50.00
Total budget receipts.....	\$59,500.00	\$61,364.14

BUDGET DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries	\$34,620.00	\$36,620.47 ³
Office expense.....	9,200.00	10,432.57
Federal and New York State Social Security taxes.....	1,200.00	1,270.25
Committee travel.....	8,400.00	7,600.85
Committee materials.....	2,000.00	2,988.87
Staff travel.....	3,000.00	3,552.97
COMPASS	4,000.00	4,034.80
Publications—other	500.00	1,079.13
Conferences	1,200.00	1,403.69 ⁴
Incorporation	500.00	159.03
Wartime Committee on Personnel.....		289.70
Additional program activities.....	\$64,620.00 2,700.00	
Total budget disbursements.....	\$67,320.00	\$69,432.33

Excess budget disbursements over receipts.....	\$7,820.00	\$8,068.19
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NON-BUDGET RECEIPTS

Chapter dues received.....		\$27,405.53
Rental grant.....		1,565.76
Hospital insurance withheld.....		123.20
Social Security taxes withheld.....		307.80
Income taxes withheld.....		5,392.32
Total non-budget receipts.....		\$34,794.61

NON-BUDGET DISBURSEMENTS

Chapter dues disbursed.....		\$27,405.53
Rental grant.....		1,565.76
Hospital insurance disbursed.....		123.20
Social Security Taxes paid.....		319.52
Income Taxes paid.....		5,392.32
Total non-budget disbursements.....		\$34,806.33

Excess non-budget disbursements over receipts.....		11.72
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Total excess disbursements over receipts.....

\$8,079.91

BALANCE OF CASH, DECEMBER 31, 1944:

Reserve fund.....		\$1,007.14
Operating balance.....		1,005.24
		\$2,612.38

¹ Contributions of \$289.70 from constituent organizations of the Wartime Committee and contributions of \$245.00 from schools of social work, for recruitment program. ²Funds held in escrow by AASW. ³In April, 1944, the Executive Committee authorized an additional expenditure of \$600 in the regular salary item. The Board in October, 1943, authorized an un-itemized expenditure of \$2,700 for program activities. Expenditure of this sum has been credited to regular budget items, including salaries. ⁴Additional \$200 for publicity authorized by Board, March, 1944.

Note: At December 31, 1944, the Association had liabilities of approximately \$1,100 for various current obligations (including 4th quarter social security taxes) unpaid at that date. The books of the Association for 1944 were audited by *Haskins and Sells, Certified Public Accountants*.

1945 Budget

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Letter from the Treasurer

The following budget was approved by the National Board October 5, 1944, and revised by the Executive Committee January 12, 1945, on the basis of end of the year figures and other adjustments.

Balance of Cash January 1, 1945:

Reserve Fund.....	\$1,007.14
Operating Balance.....	1,605.24
	<u>\$2,612.38</u>

Budget Receipts

Membership dues.....	\$58,750.00
Additional contributions.....	150.00
Publications	500.00
Miscellaneous	200.00
	<u>\$59,600.00</u>

Budget Disbursements

Salaries	\$32,720.00
Office Expense.....	6,750.00
Rent	2,352.00
Social Security Taxes.....	1,200.00
Nominations and Elections....	1,200.00
Committee Travel	8,200.00
Committee materials.....	1,000.00
Staff travel.....	3,000.00
COMPASS	4,000.00
	<u>\$60,422.00</u>
Estimated excess disbursements over receipts	<u>822.00</u>

Estimated Balance of Cash, January 1, 1946:

Reserve Fund as of January 1, 1945.....	\$1,007.14
Addition to Reserve Fund during 1945.....	500.00
Operating Balance.....	283.24
	<u>\$1,790.38</u>

Notes on 1945 Budget:

In October 1944, the Board voted to add an additional \$500 to the *Reserve Fund* at the end of 1945. It is hoped to build the Reserve Fund up to \$2,500 by the addition of \$500 each year.

Rent, which is shown as a separate disbursement item, was formerly carried in *Office Expense*. This is part payment for office space occupied by the national office; a rental grant of \$1,565.74 annually is received from the Russell Sage Foundation.

The cost of the *Nominations and Elections* procedures was formerly included in *Office Expense* and *Committee Travel*; the cost of one meeting of the National Nominating Committee is approximately \$600, the cost of printing ballots, proxies, biographical data, envelopes and mailing costs for the election is about \$600.

An item of \$1,200 covering the cost of a Delegate Conference was in the 1945 budget originally. This was omitted from the revised budget when the 1945 conference was cancelled. This saving enabled the Executive Committee to make more adequate provision for staff and committee travel than would otherwise have been the case.

MARCH, 1945

Dear Member:

You will find on these pages a financial statement covering 1944 income and expenses, and the budget for 1945. We entered 1944 with a sizeable balance of about \$10,000. The Board believed it advisable to spend part of this balance on extra program activities, and one of the important projects undertaken on a temporary basis was that of recruitment to social work. The results of this campaign were substantial, and it was with real regret that the Board was obliged to discontinue active recruitment plans at the end of December. The regular budget of the Association however could not absorb the salaries of additional staff and the cost of providing necessary literature. It is hoped that foundation support may be secured for continuation of an active recruitment program. In the meantime the national office staff is handling the still numerous inquiries which come in for information about social work as a career.

The Board's hope last year that the upward financial trend would continue has been justified. Much has been accomplished under the leadership of the Board and staff. By this spring Mr. Anderson and Miss Spencer will have visited almost all of the chapters. For the first time since 1940 we have a net increase in membership. There were 34 more members on January 1, 1945, than the year before (10,213 as against 10,179). This is not a startling figure but, considering that in 1944 there was a net *decrease* of 383 members over the previous year, it does show the trend. We continue to cancel a sizeable amount of dues for members in the Armed Forces. In 1944 we suspended dues for 528 members of whom 470 were in the service. Total cancellations represented a loss of \$3,167.50 in membership dues. Special services are being given to members in the service through publication of a Newsletter directed to their interests and through various staff contacts with federal and military authorities.

Much remains to be done if the Association is to meet the challenge of these times. Just a few thousand dollars more would enable the Association to augment services to the membership and to increase its influence. This means more new members, and, as important, retaining the participation of the members we now have.

Sincerely yours,

PAUL L. BENJAMIN
Treasurer

Race Riots and Detroit Social Agencies

BY NORMAN D. HUMPHREY

*Assistant Professor of Sociology, Wayne University. Formerly Research Director,
Detroit Council of Social Agencies*

NOT much social diagnostic ability was required to recognize that Detroit in early June 1943 was on the verge of a social explosion.¹ Rumors were floating around that a race riot was in the offing. Community conditions generating tensions such as overcrowded housing, lack of recreational outlets and the like constituted easily discernible storm signals pointing to a social hurricane. Then the storm broke and Detroit's agencies were deluged with the wreckage.

How did the 1943 riots affect agency activities and relationships? What form have preventive measures taken, and what form can they take? What, in short, is the responsibility of social agencies in building riot-proof inter-racial relations?

Any attempt to answer these questions must be based on facts. The Social Work Practices Committee of the Detroit Chapter, American Association of Social Workers² in cooperation with an informal committee of the Detroit Association for the Study of Group Work³ attempted to learn the facts through the dissemination of a questionnaire soliciting data on the effects of the race riots on social agencies. The questionnaires were sent to the executives of some 140 agencies from whom 79 useable questionnaires were returned.⁴

INDICATIONS OF GROWING TENSION

What proportion of Detroit's agencies were officially cognizant of the growing bi-racial ten-

¹ A week before June 20, 1943, the writer dispatched an article to a liberal weekly. See, "The Growing Crisis in American Caste," *Crisis*, July, 1944.

² The following persons were members of the committee and were instrumental in formulating the problem, constructing the questionnaire, critically examining the findings, and developing the recommendations: Evangeline Sheibley, Chairman, Gwen Gorman, M. Frances Hetznecker, Hazel Osborn, Rev. Father Sigmund Osmiowski, Katherine Rebel, Richardson Rice, Rosemary Stackpole, Helen Thorburn, Hester Westerman, Beulah Whitby and Freda Yenney, Secretary. The author, however, assumes responsibility for any errors or expressions of opinion. George Harrison supplied invaluable additional criticism.

³ Joseph Beattie, Hazel Osborn, Catherine Richards and Lillian Ussher were the members of this committee.

⁴ Three of the 22 group work agencies (two "mixed" and one Negro) are city-wide in scope of activities, while the others serve local areas. Of these latter, 3 are Negro-only in clientele, 9 are all-white and 10 have both Negro and white patronage. Of the 54 so-called case work agencies, 10 are hospitals having social service departments, 12 are children's or other institutions to which case workers are attached, and 32 are properly case work agencies.

sions previous to the outbreak of rioting on the night of June 20th? More than a quarter of the 79 reporting agencies noted evidences of increasing tension prior to that time. An abnormal degree of friction was discerned by 36 per cent of the group work agencies and by 15 per cent of the case work agencies. Friction took many discreet forms. An "atmosphere" of bi-racial tension was generally discernible. "An atmosphere of tension was felt," a case work executive wrote, "but it could not be clarified." In group work agencies, as one might expect, the symptoms were more apparent. "Since 1940," a group worker commented, "there was recurring evidence . . . of rising feeling." Agency policy toward interracial activities generally, as one worker put it, "was vacillating." Group discussions of frictional incidents increased, and at meetings in some settlements highly emotionalized sentiments were expressed. "The people were aware of the approaching trouble," a community center leader reported. A play in rehearsal at a settlement "contained reference to racial tensions: the participants refused to act unless the part was omitted." Recognizing approaching trouble several executives were moved to solicit action from appropriate city officials, but no united action to avert the threatening "trouble" took place.

There is no need to recount here the events of the riot. Violence of a mass character took place on June 20th and 21st in relatively restricted areas of the city, and then abated into the form of a truce enforced by the United States Army for a period of several weeks thereafter. During much of this latter period Wayne County residents were subjected to curfew and other regulations under which some normal forms of assembly were curtailed.

TEMPORARY EFFECTS ON SOCIAL AGENCIES

What effect did the riot and these regulations have on social agency activities? Almost half of the agencies were directly affected on the first two days of the riot. Many case work agencies found it necessary to curtail home calls, to devise means for the protection of Negro employees and even to close their offices. "We did not dare have our Negro employees on the streets," wrote one executive. More case work than group work agencies experienced changes on June 21st and 22nd, since 44 per cent of the group work agencies and 52 per cent of the case work agencies underwent changes.

Negroes were largely hemmed into their eastside "area." A Negro Catholic nursery kept eleven children for four days because their parents knew that they were safe there. "Residents of a Negro agency, remained in not confined but by choice." Some white gangs formed near community centers, but these groups ordinarily were broken up by the police. "Many big boys," a white worker reported, "gathered in gangs in order to parade on nearby streets. The police sent the boys home in twos," thereby reducing the possibility of gang violence.

The executive of a settlement located in a "mixed" neighborhood organized an interracial group which formulated a neighborhood peace program, and distributed the recommendations from door to door over an eight block area. But by and large "social paralysis" was a common experience to a large proportion of Detroit's social agencies. Only one-third of the agencies had formal staff or board meetings during the riot period in which their responsibilities were discussed. Others discussed the matter less formally. Formal discussion normally hinged on whether or not to close June 21st, or on the more weighty matter of post-riot policy. "Community problems resulting from the riot have been discussed both in staff and board meetings," wrote one forward-looking executive. "The policy of no discrimination which has been followed from the inception was formally recommended and included in the board's written policy. Some agencies found "no necessity" for such discussion.

One-third of the 79 reporting agencies closed down on June 21st. Most of these agencies closed between noon and three o'clock. While 40 per cent of the group work agencies closed, only 28 per cent of the case work agencies found this necessary. The Governor's decrees issued at six-thirty o'clock on June 21st were responsible in part for such curtailment of activities, but rumors of danger to workers led some executives to close even before the decrees were issued. "We did not find it necessary to close for an entire day," one executive commented. Several group work executives gave as reasons for closing, "the Governor's proclamation," and the "Mayor's orders." One group work agency closed "for the safety of clients," whereas another "continued to function, although it was recommended that we close." By virtue of the geographic locations of the respective agencies, it was difficult for any one of them to ascertain what was actually happening on a city-wide basis.

A picture of the extent of these tensions is seen in the following commentary. "At the railroad stations workers found it impossible to notify relatives of travelers who were waiting to be met. Some Negro travelers arriving at that

time returned home on the next trains some stayed in the stations overnight. There was a noticeable number of Negroes, both children and adults, leaving the city immediately following the riots."

Those case work agencies which stayed open for the most part curtailed home calls in the Negro areas, and group work agencies experienced a decline in their activities. Almost half of the agencies were affected in these ways. "Most of our people stayed home," a group work agency reported. A case work executive wrote that home calls had been curtailed for reasons of "safety." Executives who commented on this matter almost uniformly regarded the "Negro" area as the area of danger.

People who got into "trouble" as a result of the riot came for aid to 36 per cent of the group work, and to 40 per cent of the case work agencies. Several clients whose businesses had been destroyed applied to denominational agencies for aid. Many Negroes went to agencies to obtain food. Clients also came for first aid, advice, and temporary protection and security. "One family living in a Negro neighborhood for years," wrote an agency head, "asked us for help in moving elsewhere because they were afraid to remain, although they suffered no harm."

The Office of Civilian Defense set up centers in schools in the east-side Negro area, and social workers volunteered for service there. Some agencies were too remote from the riotous area to be involved. "As far as we know," wrote a group work executive for an agency having units in many churches and schools of the city, "none of those who were associated with the movement were in trouble during this time." Evidently relatively few agencies were as fortunate as this one in the character of their clientele.

More than one-third of the agencies suffered a decline in normal office and building use during the riot and post-riot periods. Clients were afraid to come to agencies and workers notified them not to appear because of real or fancied dangers. "We were in the midst of the rioting," a psychiatric social worker wrote, "so parents became alarmed and appointments were cancelled for about a week, although many did not cancel." "Our office was inaccessible to clients," commented another worker.

The open hostilities of the first two days of rioting declined during the time in which troops were quartered, for only 11 per cent of the 79 agencies experienced program alterations during this period. Some settlements and community centers curtailed evening programs, and other group work agencies turned over their facilities to the troops. Several case work agencies loaned workers to aid in interviewing "rioters."

"Some time elapsed before all workers felt free to visit all their areas on calls," a case work execu-

tive wrote. But this judgment was not uniformly held by agency heads. "When troops gave protection, workers entered any area," another agency director commented. Bad feeling between the races, if it did exist, was not always expressed. "We were examining about 450 draftees, Negro and white, every Friday at that time," a medical social worker wrote regarding her hospital. "Four policemen were assigned, but there was no trouble, nor was any tension apparent."

Only three agencies made job shifts on a racial basis during this period. The very lack of Negro workers in agencies was in part responsible for the limited number of personnel shifts on the basis of race. Half of the agencies indicated that the question, "Did you shift cases carried by white workers to Negro workers?" did not apply to them. One executive commented succinctly: "Not good social work." A group work agency took a forward step: "We have added a Negro worker," the executive wrote, "whose status is framed in 'interracial' rather than 'racial' service areas."

LONG-TIME EFFECTS ON SOCIAL AGENCIES

What permanent effects did the riots have on agencies? One would expect that client-agency relationships would have been adversely affected by the riots. Yet not one agency regarded its relationships with clients as having retrogressed. "There was no reason to change them," wrote another leader. Several agencies regarded their relationships as actually improved subsequent to the riot. "The mutual fright and concern," an agency head reported, "was impetus to many objective discussions . . . regarding . . . the conduct of whites and Negroes. . . ." Both white and Negro agency workers were mutually solicitous of the other's welfare. "The good-will felt by Negro residents of this neighborhood," a clinic executive reported, "was demonstrated . . . by the protection . . . they gave the building during the days it was closed." The attitude of some agencies, however, undoubtedly was expressed by the following statement: "We were not dealing with a mixed racial group."

Three agencies made what they regarded as "permanent changes" as a consequence of the riot. An agency disposed of a building which had housed white girls and which was located on the edge of a Negro area. A boys' institution limited its clients' activities in certain unnamed Negro sections and after certain hours. Many other agencies regarded themselves as always having had "constructive race relations programs," and hence did not alter their policies. A city-wide group work agency, however, moved in the direction of constructive interracism by conducting a bi-racial day camp during the period of troop quartering. As a result of this successful demonstration, "all day camping conducted by the agency

was made available to all . . . members . . . without segregation."

Positive programs and policies are in the process of formation in a number of agencies. A clinic operated entirely under Jewish auspices, for example, but serving a large group of Negro patients, has given consideration to the idea of adding Negro physicians to its staff and Negro representatives to its board. A community center, looking forward to the possibility of a bi-racial clientele, has taken the stand that it must prepare its patrons for that eventuality. "It may be that we cannot move fast enough," the executive reports, "but move we must." Despite such factors as strong "Klan" influences, and powerful "white only" realty improvement associations, this agency is carrying on a concerted educational program so as to prepare its constituency further for democratic living. The Federation of Settlements also has been active as an organization in activities designed to alleviate tension and to promote normal, human relations between the races.

Group work agencies, as one might assume, are more actively engaged in promoting interracial harmony than are case work agencies. Only 37 per cent of the case work agencies, in contrast to 80 per cent of the group work agencies, are contemplating or are actually engaged in programs implementing racial harmony. But the conception of what constitutes "active programs" varies widely. Some point to personnel with membership in interracial fellowships. Other agencies "have always promoted interracial harmony" and served clientele "without discrimination." The question comes to mind at this point, "Is this enough?"

A city-wide boys' agency commented that "the race riot neither speeded up nor slowed down the long range planning" of its department of interracial service. But some agencies actually have active programs constructed on interracial lines. One such agency is attempting the "education of Negro and white boys in group living. This program is helped by a full-time Negro recreation director." Still another group work agency "has been conducting an interracial program for fifteen years," and now has "an interracial committee. . . ." A community center located in an all-white and anti-Negro neighborhood promotes intercultural understanding through group study of Negro literature, and by reading "letters from Negro friends who are in the armed services . . . at adult group meetings." The activities and program departments of still another agency "are increasing their efforts toward integration through alternating discussion meetings in the various branches." A city-wide group work agency with a largely middle class clientele has "added a Negro staff member who will work with Negro and white groups."

While these gestures might be regarded favorably as part of a multiple approach toward more

harmonious race relations, how positive have they been in actually deterring race friction? Seventeen per cent of the reporting agencies had noted recurrence of tensions in April, 1944. Today there is greater awareness by agency personnel of the portent of the thousands of little events which culminate in riots. Feeling is still running strong. "There are not similar situations," an executive reported, "but other indications seem to show a continuing racial tension."

How do agencies feel about the situation? A writer comments on her agency that "the board, reflecting attitudes of some industrialists in the community, cautions that 'the community isn't ready' for interracialism. People continue to think with emotion instead of minds." Yet several agency heads commented that despite mixed staff and clientele no problem issued from this situation. Other agencies called attention to their "all-white" character and indicated that they were thereby immune to interracial problems. Nevertheless, some all-white agencies recognized that they could not isolate themselves from the rest of the community and were actively pursuing intercultural programs. Several of the executives anticipated future board discussions of race relations, and some noted favorable reception of the Council of Social Agencies Interracial Code.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

It is evident that two related problems present themselves in these data. One involves long term building of constructive race relations, and the other centers in the immediate task of riot prevention. Both involve programs of action. The program outline by Alfred McClung Lee and this author in their book *Race Riot* (Dryden Press, 1943) possesses applications to social work practice for the prevention of riots. The authors suggest and chart the creation of two committees or councils, one governmental and the other a citizens' body, both of which will concern themselves with fact-finding, analysis of facts and translation of findings into programs of action. Fact-finding, as they conceive of it, would be largely in the areas of "riot symptoms," and would consist of data on rumors, race fictions, demagogic groups, discrimination in employment and the like. Analysis and integration of facts would involve the construction of such tools as a "race sentiments barometer" and would channel specific intelligence on what was going on and being done into a central office.⁵ Translation into action is recognized as a difficult process but it has roots in established practices of sound community organization.

How do agencies and workers fit into this picture? Certainly, in the first place, social workers

⁵ Beulah Whitby, Assistant Director, Detroit Interracial Committee has been responsible for the construction of a workable "barometer" as suggested by *Race Riot*.

should be represented in the official and citizens' organizations, and there they could bring to bear their knowledge of community conditions and forces so as effectively to work for community betterment. In the matter of fact finding, social workers, by the very nature of their activities, know or have hunches of what is "going on," and they can funnel this information into channels where it will be most effective. Of course, it is well recognized that the major functions of many interracial committees heretofore created have been largely ornamental. It would be organized social work's job, therefore, to see that this did not occur. Above all, social workers as persons might well engage in interracial work and fellowship in such fashion as to indicate the beneficial character of these activities by their own examples. Any program aimed constructively at riot prevention inevitably works for better race relations. Thus the following recommendations, flowing from this study, attempt to synthesize long term educational measures with immediate instruments of riot prevention.

The Committee on Social Work Practices of the Detroit Chapter AASW recommends action on the following points:

1. That the promotion of interracial harmony be regarded by all agencies as coming within the scope of their practices, and that the possession of an all-white or all-Negro clientele at the present time in no way absolves an agency from this responsibility.
2. That those agencies which have "always promoted harmony" re-examine their practices, and that those agencies which have regarded themselves as having "no necessity" for such activities, think beyond the narrow confines of their immediate neighborhood and clientele to the results of this pseudo-isolation on the broader community.
3. That the agencies re-examine the effects of the riots on established client relationships.
4. That agencies develop formal, responsible interracial and/or intercultural committees which seek to find methods of relating themselves to the appropriate civic or citizens' committees, or both. (The City of Detroit Interracial Committee is the current, official, civic committee, and the Greater Detroit Interracial, Intercultural Fellowship is the dominant citizens' committee.)
5. That agencies develop procedures aimed at the promotion of constructive race relations, beyond the mere formation of committees.
6. That agencies constitute themselves as responsible reportorial groups ready regularly to report the race relations climate to appropriate citizens and civic organizations, and that the appropriate civic and citizens organizations set up machinery for such regular reporting.
7. That agencies develop procedures for maximum functioning in the event of another riot.
8. That the AASW itself develop a standing committee which establishes regular relationships with the civic and citizens' committees for coordinating activity.
9. That the AASW approve the Interracial Code of the Council of Social Agencies of Metropolitan Detroit as evidencing sound social work practice, and that individually and as a body we assume responsibility ourselves for its acceptance by agency boards and its institution as agency practice.



Chapter by Chapter

Chicago

Race Relations Institute

THE Chicago Chapter, recognizing the importance of the field of race relations, held an institute on January 26, 1945, attended by nearly 200 social workers. Following is the program:

Morning Session—10:00 to 12:00

MRS. ALTHEA ATWATER
Chairman Chicago Chapter A.A.S.W. Presiding

THE NEGRO IN CHICAGO

HORACE R. CAYTON, *Director*
PARKWAY COMMUNITY HOUSE

AMERICAN MINORITY PROBLEMS

LOUIS WIRTH, *Professor Sociology*
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Discussants:

WILLARD TOWNSEND, *President*
United Transport Service Employees of America. C.I.O.

REV. ARCHIBALD CAREY, *Pastor*
Woodlawn A. M. E. Church

Luncheon Session—12:30 P.M.

HOUSING PROBLEMS OF NEGROES

ROBERT R. TAYLOR, *Chairman*
Chicago Housing Authority

DISCRIMINATION IN THE SCHOOLS

ETHEL J. ALPENFELS, *Lecturer in Anthropology*

ACTION PROGRAMS

JOSEPH WECKLER, *Community Services*
American Council on Race Relations

The Institute was held in the Negro community, a community center and a church, not only for the convenience of those social workers assigned to Negro areas but also to give those who do not have daily contact with Negroes opportunity to become more intimately acquainted with the area. Most of the social agencies both public and private responded enthusiastically to the chapter's request to allow workers to attend the institute on office time on the ground that the institute would make a contribution to their skills.

It is impossible to estimate the results of such an enterprise. Various other groups are engaged in similar undertakings. The chapter members and other social workers who attended were enthusiastic about our first effort to contribute our share to a much needed movement to improve race relations in Chicago.

The need for such an undertaking was widely felt not merely among social workers but among many other official and non-official groups. Racial tensions have been rising with the rapid influx of Negro workers into Chicago war industries. The Negro population has expanded to over 300,000. The housing shortage, already acute before the war, was greatly aggravated by the failure to build during the war and by the restrictive covenants which prevented the expansion of the Negro area. Despite the acceptance of the Negro in a number of new industries his employment opportunities are still limited. The growing feeling that he is subjected to discrimination in the armed services and receives unequal services in education, health and welfare, is making the Negro more militant. The Negro leadership has

Each month this department carries a description of an interesting project developed by one of our chapters. This month's contribution comes from Chicago. The Chicago Chapter was founded in 1924 and had a membership on November 28, 1944, of 640. Mrs. Althea Atwater is chapter chairman.

made this militancy more articulate. Considering the nature of this war, the white community also has become more conscious of the contradiction of its professed beliefs and its actions.

These facts, together with news and rumors of racial disturbances in other areas, and the lingering memory of Chicago's race riot shortly after World War I have made the city apprehensive. On this background, the Mayor's Committee on Race Relations, a State Commission on Race Relations and numerous citizens' groups came into being. The institute was designed to give to social workers in concentrated form the general theories and facts on the subject of race relations and to acquaint them with the action programs and procedures for dealing with specific problems.

The meetings were opened by the director of the Negro Community Center in which the meeting was held. He analyzed the factors underlying the discontent of Negroes. He and a well-known and talented Negro minister-lawyer described graphically how the Negro feels about the discrimination to which he is subjected, and called the attention of social workers to many things they failed to understand about the overt behavior of the Negro. Social workers were cautioned against falling into a trap of ascribing adverse behavior such as delinquency or aggressiveness to race. For instance, when two white boys are fighting, we say "those *kids* are fighting it out." When two Negro boys are fighting we say "those *Negroes* are fighting," whereas if a Negro and a white boy are fighting, it is regarded as an incipient riot.

Next, a sociologist described the various fronts on which progress is being made including employment, housing, legislation, public services and personal relations. He pointed out that there is a great difference between personal prejudices and public policies and that while the former can be changed over a period of years by education and social conditions, the latter can be improved forthwith especially in a period of crisis when conditions are fluid. He pointed out that the most notable gains the Negro has made in recent years had come through organized labor, political action especially since 1933, and the awakening of the white conscience.

The C.I.O. representative called attention to the peculiar position of the "professional race relations" worker who from the point of view of the Negro often turns out, on official committees, to be the pacifier of the Negro without being able to accomplish anything about his grievances and to be a shock absorber for the "great white father" who appointed him. He cautioned social workers not to place too much faith in official race relations committees. He emphasized that there is always an inclination to persuade people who are already convinced. He agreed with the other speakers that problems of

hiring, up-grading and seniority would become acute when jobs become scarce, and that the Negro has a greater stake than anyone else in a sound social security and full employment program.

Among the specific problems none seemed more important than housing. The Chairman of the Chicago Housing Authority pointed out the complications in providing adequate housing for Negroes, especially community attitudes which hamper land acquisition and site selection. The problem of discrimination in the schools appeared so important that its discussion was postponed to a future meeting.

The representative of the newly organized National Council on Race Relations with headquarters in Chicago described the action programs under way in various parts of the country. He discussed the experiments being made in the prevention of violence through the education of municipal police and law enforcement officers.

MARY B. WIRTH
Executive Secretary

Services to Crippled Children

Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau has recently sent a memorandum to state agencies recommending revision of state laws to eliminate "court action" as a condition precedent to providing services under state crippled children's programs. It is pointed out that any recommendation for revision of state laws covering crippled children is complicated by the fact that the provisions for preliminary court action generally constitute an integral part of an entire code dealing with the administration of the program for these children. The elimination from the particular state code of the provisions for court procedure may leave a gap which would require drafting of appropriate legislation to transfer to another agency the functions formerly performed by the court. It is the view of the Children's Bureau that the function of evaluating the various criteria of eligibility is a function of the official state agency responsible for administering the program of services to crippled children under the Social Security Act and that transfer of this function should be to such agency and none other.

The Children's Bureau will be glad to assist state officials in reviewing this matter and suggesting appropriate ways of meeting the problems presented in various state laws.

CORRECTION

The January 1945 issue of THE COMPASS carried an article about enrollment in schools of social work. On page nine there was noted the ten schools with the highest enrollment, fourth on the list being given as the University of California. This should have been the University of Southern California.



Philadelphia

The reorganization of the Philadelphia Chapter which has taken place during the past year has resulted in an upsurge of interest by the membership in the affairs of the Association.

The new plan of organization grew first out of a series of meetings at which the aims and objects of a professional association were brought out anew for lively discussion, and second from the deliberation of a special committee under the chairmanship of Miss Marian Gennaria, which led to the drafting of a new set of by-laws and the adoption of new procedures for committee action.

The Philadelphia Chapter, which has a membership of 308, is now set up in five divisions in general fields of interest: Personnel Standards and Employment Practices, Professional Practices, Government and Social Work, Interpretation and Social Action, and Chapter Organization and Administration. The chairman of each division is elected by vote of the membership on a double slate and together with eight others similarly elected constitute the Executive Council. Committees which formerly reported to an Executive Committee now report to the several divisions, which in turn are responsible to the Council. The interest and participation of the membership is related to these divisions, each of them having a mailing list of those members who have signified their interest in one or more of the several fields of work which the divisions represent. The divisions are free to originate projects in their several fields of interest with or without clearance through the Executive Council except that they do not commit the chapter on matters of policy or action without clearance with the Council or the membership.

Early in the development of this new plan of organization, the Division on Interpretation and Social Action presented a memorandum to the Grand Jury, charged with the responsibility of "investigating juvenile delinquency" and the desirability of a "curfew law." The chapter's statement made the front page news columns in the

local press and was reflected in the Grand Jury's report. The subject of state legislation and the possible reorganization of certain state departments has been presented to the chapter by the Division on Government and Social Work. Chapter members are hopeful that the new impetus to thought and action will give professional social work more of its professional place in the community affairs.

North Alabama

The Government and Social Work or Legislative Committee is affiliated with the State Legislative Council and is working with them on state social legislation. Bills endorsed are: Merit System, Probation and Parole, Child Labor, and the Cancer Control Bill. These bills are sponsored by the American Association of University Women, the State Federation of Clubs, and others.

The OCD has given the chapter office space and the use of a typewriter one day a month. This provides a center for information and it is hoped will lead to a separate AASW office and a paid secretary.

Westchester County, New York

The Westchester Chapter has planned a series of meetings around the theme "Social Tensions Abroad in the World Today and Their Relation to Social Work." On December 13, Miss Mary Hurlburt of the New York School of Social Work faculty spoke on the topic "Cultural Relations in American Society." On January 26, Mr. John Fitch, also of the New York School, outlined the problem of "The Worker in the World of Tomorrow." The subjects for the last two meetings will be, "America's No. 1 Problem—the Negro" and "The Common Man and World Economic Trends." Lively discussion led by Mr. Sydney Maslen, program chairman, followed speeches at the first two meetings.

Georgia

The Georgia Chapter recently endorsed unanimously the Child Labor Bill which is now being presented to the legislature. This bill would amend the previous code and make Georgia laws more nearly parallel federal law in this respect. The Bulletin of the chapter urged all members throughout the state to communicate with their Senators and Representatives urging support of the bill.

The chapter also voted to cooperate with the League of Women Voters, making a study of the State Department of Public Welfare, by furnishing the chapter's membership list. This step was taken after due consideration of the feeling that in this instance we were aiding social action.



Union Opinion on Detroit Plan

To the Editor:

The United Office and Professional Workers of America through its National Social Service Division and affiliated local unions in social work has sought to promote a policy of uniform job classifications and salary scales throughout social work. The Detroit plan, presented in part in the January issue of *THE COMPASS*, was welcomed by the union as a step in the right direction.

The union has consistently pointed out the relation between salary policy, the shortage and excessive turnover of workers, and social work's ability to meet the country's increased need for services. It is widely accepted today in the field that city-wide and even national classification systems and salary standards are essential to stabilize the present staff, encourage new workers to enter the field, and secure maximum performance on the job.

However, two main points must be recognized in relation to this whole question. Classification plans established today can only be viewed as tentative, as necessary stopgap measures. The content of social work's job in the country and consequently, the content of every employee's job regardless of category, is in process of great change. Social work exists to meet given social needs of the people. These needs are not static. They grow out of the economic, social and political situation within the country at any particular time. The war placed a demand on social work for greatly expanded services which clearly continues and grows more urgent as the war reaches its climax and critical reconversion problems emerge.

Social work has not yet demonstrated understanding of what is required of it nor ability to fulfill the requirements. If the situation can be changed in time—and the time element here is of the essence—and social work moves to meet its responsibilities to the nation, the profession as a whole will acquire a new status and importance in our national life. In that case, salaries reflecting the change in job content and import to the community must be drastically revised upward.

In case social work fails in its obligations, even existing salary structure will be undermined.

But even as a stopgap, the union would consider Detroit's salary standards already outmoded. In our opinion, based on current developments in practice in the field, the minimum for professional workers, graduated from an accredited school or with comparable experience, should be \$2,400.

The second main point relates to democratic participation of the employees in formulating and applying classification plans. Recent experience indicates that the councils of social agencies oppose working with the union officially on these plans. And yet the union is the instrument in social work, as in any other field,

through which employees deal with their economic problems. Furthermore, the union has more information and experience in these matters than any other organization in the field.

One or two illustrations from Detroit demonstrate the results of "handing down" a plan. The salaries established bear no relation to hours of work which vary widely in Detroit as in most cities. Therefore, a main objective which Detroit sought to achieve, "equal pay for equal work", is undermined.

Consider further. "The new classification plan with qualifications was not intended to apply to current employees" according to Miss Hester Westerman in her *COMPASS* article. Accordingly, those presently employed in the field were brought up to the minimum of their range if they were below the minimum or given a \$150 per year increase—whichever was the greater; whereas a new employee can be placed anywhere within the range. As a result, there are now cases where an employee with several years' experience in an agency is paid less than a new person hired by that agency.

There are many more illustrations that could be given to indicate that even as a stopgap, Detroit's plan has serious weaknesses. These could have easily been avoided if the union had been accepted as a working partner on the plan and through it democratic participation of the employees secured.

THE COMPASS is to be congratulated for publishing the Detroit plan and furthering discussion on the vital question of salary policy in social work.

EVELYN ADLER,
Director, National Social Service Division, UOPWA

More About the Detroit Plan

A group of personnel workers discussed Miss Westerman's article in the January issue of *THE COMPASS*, and formulated the following statements:

To the Editor:

Miss Westerman in her article "Detroit Agencies Classify Personnel," clearly indicates the difficulties in attempting to classify positions in the agencies serving youth and adults through out-of-school and leisure time activities. The term "group work" is susceptible to many interpretations and rarely used as a title to describe the duties and responsibilities of professional workers in these agencies. Position titles in common use are more likely to be, activities director, program director, boys' work director, girls' work director, physical director, health and physical work director, etc., and seem to more nearly describe the functions. Group work is one method among others for achieving the aims of these organizations and many believe derives its methodology more directly from the field of education than from the social work field. Its identification with social work has been largely through agency participation in councils of social agencies and frequently arises out of the fact that it gets its support in common with social agencies from community chests.

I would agree with those who, according to Miss Westerman, think the Detroit plan "puts too high a premium on education and field work in graduate schools of social work." That is not to say that such training is not important and desirable, but rather to say that professional training for workers in these fields should be in terms of carefully determined curricula and field experience in any accredited college and university equipped to provide it. Recognition of this is provided in stating as an alternate qualification of Group Worker 11 and Group Worker Supervisor 11, a Master's Degree in a school of education. But if an acceptable alternate for Group Worker 11 and Group Work Supervisor 11, why not for Group Worker 111 and Group Work Supervisor 111?

Miss Westerman reports that "the committee wanted training in graduate schools of social work and *not* in related fields." I do not believe that graduate schools of social work are better equipped on the whole to provide this training than are many other colleges and universities.

The article states frankly that "the group work supervisors series is admittedly a catch-all." This of course makes it quite unacceptable as a definitive job description. There is also considerable confusion as between the functions of the group worker and the group work supervisor.

There is great need for continuous study and work by all interested groups on these job classifications. A committee of the National Education-Recreation Council has done some preliminary work growing out of the need to provide the War Manpower Commission with job descriptions of "essential activities," and a committee of the Associated Youth Serving Organizations (Campfire Girls, National Federation of Settlements, Girl Scouts, Boys' Clubs of America, Jewish Welfare Board, Y.W.C.A. and Y.M.C.A.), comprising the personnel directors of the different agencies, is at work on such a classification. From studies made to date, it seems clear that the title "group worker" itself is not suitable as a position title, but rather "working with groups" is a professional technique and one of the essential and important skills used in a variety of positions which need to be described and classified.

With the aim of the Detroit studies "to find a way to secure well-qualified workers and a training plan which would provide them," we are in full sympathy, but to assume at this stage that it should be done under a group work title or training secured exclusively in a graduate school of social work is unrealistic.

LESLIE TOMPKINS,
Executive for Personnel Service,
National Council, YMCA

To the Editor:

The diversity in personnel standards and practices existing in the group work field creates major difficulties for any committee attempting to classify positions in the various agencies. The need for more careful thinking and common agreement about classifications, job titles, job descriptions and qualifications, with related salary scales, has long been recognized. Progress is being made, but there remain many unsolved questions which must be dealt with before satisfactory results will be attained.

This situation leads us to commend with real appreciation any personnel committee which refuses to say "it can't be done." The Detroit Personnel Plan as it deals with group work positions may be considered a part of the pioneer effort in this area. A plan based on objective standards for measuring qualifications and worked out to an extent that it can be tested, provides all of us with experience invaluable to the larger task of defining standards required for the entire group work field.

One of the commendable points about the Detroit plan is that it is not considered final. Those responsible for the administration apparently wish to test, to accumulate experience, and to make revisions when advisable. This point of view is important, for certainly no community will achieve the desired results from such a plan unless it is acceptable to the agencies for whom it is intended.

Along with the Detroit plan, it is well to study the reports of personnel plans worked out in other communities. The Welfare Council of New York City has recently published a report which merits thoughtful study. The Chicago Council of Social Agencies has made a survey of existing practices which raises questions deserving consideration. Reports which should be reviewed have been made by St. Paul and Boston. A number of other cities have committees at work.

Even a quick reading of the various reports available leads to these conclusions.

1. While schools of social work are teaching techniques and providing field work experience which are valuable to the group work field, we must recognize that some of the able group workers are the products of related fields. Communities which adopt qualifications such as Detroit has, may encounter difficulties in securing professional personnel and may have to realize that competent workers are available who do not have degrees from schools of social work.

2. Both national agencies and local groups are working on ways of raising standards. A cooperative effort between agencies in the local community is one part of the process. Cooperation among national organizations is another. Cooperation between local and national agencies is a third and important factor in achieving wide scale improvement.

There is great need for continuous study and work by all interested groups.

Statement prepared by Committee
on Personnel, Associated Youth
Serving Organizations, Inc.

Professional Responsibility

(Continued from page 17)

ample, a student in Detroit wished to make a study of the children receiving care from child caring agencies. This study was almost abandoned because of the size of the task until it was discovered by accident that the State Department of Welfare had available on tabulating cards a complete report of every child receiving service and that the State Department was willing to make special tabulations by agency or groups of agencies of the service rendered. A constant vigilance on the part of a chapter regarding such resources would be a potent stimulus toward encouraging research and making feasible many

an idea which has been abandoned because of the seeming enormity of the task.

Finally the committee of the local chapter with an appropriate sense of modesty recognizes that the encouragement and promotion of research transcends the levels of local responsibility. Therefore, it recommends that the American Association of Social Workers take appropriate steps to develop local interest and responsibility in this field and that it act as a tempering agency utilizing the many local developments, welding them into a sound instrumentality of research for the profession as a whole.

